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New York, September II, 1880.

Young Teachers.

We have a good many letters that find fault with our condemnation of "young and inexperienced teachers." These writers are in earnest; they do not like to be underrated. We heartily like the tone of most of these letters—they ask for recognition. Do not our good friends a little misunderstand our position. We don't care how "young and inexperienced" a teacher is if he is made of the right material. We agree with Commissioner Newman of Onondaga county, that in comparing the work of this class with that of the sharp, case-hardened, routinist, it is much to be preferred. Not simply age and experience are wanted, but professional zeal, enthusiasm, knowledge, aptness and skill. Of all things deliver the schools from the school-master or school-ma'am who have lost all interest in humanity. There are those who have fixed ideas of the "pattern scholar" that are only ridiculous. The one that never laughs always sits still, keeps a clean face and answers the questions in the words of the book. This one gets "ten" every time. But the boy who is lively, lively plays tricks, etc., he is simply bad. Age does not qualify; experience does not qualify. Have you got the "teach" in you? If so, though but a babe in arms, we accord you a place, for you will cast light into the dark places of the world, and are therefore worthy of honor.

Questions.

Subscribers who submit questions must put them on a piece of paper separate from the letter—so as to save us the labor of copying them out. Give such as pertain to matters interesting to teachers generally; no mathematical problems, or "nuts," as a rule wanted. Be ready with

answers; if possible send answer when question is sent.

No. 1. Do all the States elect President and Vice President on the same day?—C. MANLOR.

All the States elect electors on the same day. Also many States will elect congressmen, etc., on that day. Kansas will vote on an amendment to the Constitution to prohibit the sale of liquor. Maine will vote on an amendment that a plurality vote shall elect the Governor.

2. What is a good definition of education?—J. FAIRBANKS, Springfield, Mo.

Various attempts have been made to formulate the development of the mind under the direction of another, but as yet the definitions are not very satisfactory. Education includes several things—the arousing of the mental powers, the exercising of them, and the acquirement of knowledge. It is defined by Brooks as "the perfecting of the powers" of the individual. "To realize the divine ideal" says another. To train the mental powers in a normal way is a brief definition—but it is not a perfect one.

3. What is the prospect of a pension for teachers?

We do not think it looks encouraging. And until the teachers position is secured on a sounder basis it will attract no public interest.

Prizes to Scholars.

It will be considered in fifty years from now that the people of 1880 had some singular customs. "Why," one will say, "they gave out medals, watches, books, etc., to those who studied hard. My grandfather has a gold medal that he got when he was in—school. He says that it was all a mistake, that there were other smarter boys, but that he by good luck gave the answer, and so got the prize. He had half a mind to refuse to receive it."

"Yes," says another, "it was so funny that they gave out medals to those who could remember best. Why I think that the hard workers should have got something. Aunt Jane never got a medal, and yet she became the president of—college. She must have been a good scholar, but it was not found out. I don't see how she escaped. I should have supposed that they would have forced one on her."

"It seems," says a third, "that even in 1880 they began to have doubts about the prize business. The failure of those who got the gold watches and gold badges to sustain themselves afterward attracted attention. The successful men in business were not prize men—only now and then does a prize man appear to have gone on after he left college."

"But," says a fourth, "the dreadful results; the broken health, for some cannot learn under pressure. The one who seems to have had courage to speak out was a Dr. Richardson, and his books are considered standard, even now. He shows that it is deadly for some to use their studying power; and that such are the quickest to learn of all. It is like making a cart-house of a gray-hound. They cannot bear burdens."

"Well, thank God," says a fifth. The prize system was abolished before our day. Only it is a matter of wonder that it survived so long."

The New York Schools.

For a good many years the American people have been trying a peculiar plan of superintending the public schools. Let us take New York city as an example. The Trustees of the wards appoint teachers; the Board of Education appoint Superintendents. After the teachers have got well to work, these latter gentlemen examine the product. They gauge the amount of instruction. All this looks like business, and to the superficial it would seem as if the heaven of perfection had been reached. The business man looks at it as at ploughing land. An estimate is made that a man should plough so many acres per month, and if he fail, why he must have been idle, that is all. In the schools a course of study is fixed, and the exact amount of what is to be done is carefully laid down—if this is not done, the teacher is marked "fair" or "poor," and is liable to be dismissed.

Let us suppose that the Trustees of the Metropolitan Museum of Art should proceed in the same way; appoint-

ing painters to paint landscapes, etc., and superintendents to see that they stuck to their work and produced a given number of square yards per day. What kind of pictures would be produced? A very inferior kind, of course. Is teaching a mechanical business or not? It is not; those who attempt to make it such degrade themselves, and the work the Son of God thought not beneath him to undertake. Superintendence, as it is generally carried on, tends to mechanize the work of the teacher. And there is no doubt that the New York schools are about half as good as they might be for want of properly devised superintendence. This fact is not stated wildly; it is the result of a long and careful observation and inquiry. The teachers feel borne down by the superintendence; they stand in mortal fear of it; so do the scholars; and so do the families,—for, in order to meet the requirements of the superintendence the children are examined over and over—in fact, as the common expression is, the schools are "examined to death."

Who is to blame? The Teachers themselves, the Board of Education, and the Superintendents. Superintendence should be but the complement of professional enthusiasm and skill. 1. Every effort should be made to create educational ability: it is a precious power. As things are now managed instruction is what carries the day. He who can cram knowledge down the children so that it can be easily brought up again passes muster. The teachers should unite and study education; they should frequently meet for this purpose; there should be systematic efforts to increase in practical educational attainments. The most successful teachers should be invited to unfold their plans and methods. Here is where the teachers of New York City are deserving of blame. They complain of the burden of superintendence, yet neglect the only means to escape from it. For the pressure of superintendence is in direct proportion to the absence of educational spirit; the less of that, the more of the other.

2. The Board of Education should labor for the same end; they should plan to have instruction in the Art of Teaching and kindred subjects; the latter has been done in Boston, and one-third of the teachers attended, and paid fees for the lectures, too. But all of this should be done, and so as to evoke a study spirit of self improvement by the teacher.

3. The superintendents truly are but the servants of the Board of Education, but they know better than any one else that something besides superintendence is wanted to make good schools in this city. The schools could exist without superintendence—if they were filled with the right kind of teachers. The present mode does not directly improve the quality of the teaching. They should lead off in encouraging the manifestation of educational spirit and the growth of skill. They should examine the schools with reference to two things—(a) The amount learned and possessed by the scholar, (b) the degree of educational skill possessed by the teacher. This latter would require considerable time, for the teacher must be observed while at her work. This could not be put down in figures any more than Guy as an artist could be marked "Good," James Hart as "Excellent," etc. Teaching is an art—in fact, the art of arts. A mechanical superintendence makes it a mechanical business, and when it becomes such the schools are dead things that cannot fulfill their mission. The main work of the superintendents should be to encourage and direct the growth of the teachers in the power to educate, not to gauge the quantity of knowledge imbibed by the pupils; because a poor teacher can force in a given amount of knowledge as well as a good one. Whether pupils are really being taught in a more superior manner is the grave question the superintendents should reply to; they can and should exalt the art of education as it is practiced in the city schools. This, it is true, is not required of them by the Board, and so they cannot be blamed—nor do we blame them. We simply ask them to become leaders in a movement that must be made.

In Boston the schools had got to a mechanical stage that was painfully perfect. The people were not satisfied. The superintendent was dropped. His successor is trying to do just what we have indicated above. It may take time, but New York will be aroused at last.

THE SCHOOL-ROOM.

Primary Class.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE READING LESSON.

1. A sharp discrimination should be made between reading as a purely mental act, and reading aloud.

a. Reading aloud is the vocal expression of the thought thus gained.

The first is the valuable mental act, and to it (getting thought) the entire concentrated attention of both teacher and class should be given, during the lesson. Nothing of detail or analysis—as spelling, punctuation, pronouncing slowly, inflection, or emphasis—should stand in the way of the clear comprehension of the thought.

Reading aloud is the teacher's best means of knowing whether the thought is properly in the mind of the reader. In order to have reading aloud perform this very important function, the following rules must be observed:—

I. Pupils should not be required to express a thought (read a sentence aloud) until the thought is in their minds; that is, until the sentence is mentally read.

II. If the thought is in the mind, it will control expression, thus making attention to punctuation, mechanical emphasis, and inflection, not only unnecessary, but a great hindrance to the proper expression of thought. Capitals and punctuation aid the eye in taking in the thought, but have nothing whatever to do with the expression of it.

III. If the thought is not properly expressed, the teacher should call attention by a question to that part of the thought, or that relation of some idea to the thought (modification of subject or predicate) not fully grasped by the pupil.

V. Mistakes in pronunciation while reading should be reserved for special drill in pronunciation.

VI. Lessons in getting thought may be given in the following way:—

The black horse ran swiftly up the high hill.

What ran?

How did the horse run?

Where did he run?

What did the horse do?

What kind of a horse?

What kind of a hill?

2. Teachers should omit lessons which they find to be too difficult for their pupils, returning to them when the needed strength is acquired.

3. Members of a class should not know which one of them is to read next.

4. It is of great importance that pupils be successful in every attempt to read a sentence. The confidence thus gained will give them ease and courage.

5. During the first year, pupils should have books only while they are actively using them in reading. Very little of the so-called study, outside of recitations, should be allowed.—F. W. PARKER, and L. MARVEL.

Teaching Penmanship.

1. The lesson should be prepared by the teacher before coming to the class.

2. Remember that the object of practical penmanship is to produce clear and rapid writing. Work for that result.

3. Do not teach shading until the scholars can form the letters quite accurately.

4. Drill the class thoroughly upon straight and curved lines, slanting straight lines, right curve, left curve, angle, turn, parallel lines.

5. The correct slant can be easily taught by directing class to write each letter directly under the one above it, so that a vertical line drawn from the top to the bottom of the page would pass through each letter at the same place.

In primary work, let the children, from time to time, write letters from memory.

Classes should be drilled to write in concert; that is, each child make the same stroke at the same time. This can be accomplished by counting, or by calling each line by its name; thus, in the case of the *i*, can be said one, two, or three, four, or right curve, slanting straight line, right curve, dot.

When you have drilled your class so that they can keep perfect time, you can render the lesson an attractive one by having the children write to music.

While children are still at slate-writing, the best slates should be retained and exhibited.

The scholars should be allowed, from time to time, to

write on the black-board. The best results should not be rubbed off, but, with the name of the scholar attached, remain, if possible, until the next day or longer.

Specimen copies should be neatly written on paper, and arranged so that they can be hung up on the walls. Stiff card-board will answer this purpose. It can be prettily decorated, and then, by cutting small slits at the right distances, the specimen copies can easily be attached to it.

The best copy-books should, if possible, be sent to the principal each week or month, as a further incentive to do good work.

A large scrap-book should also be kept, and, at the beginning of each month, a specimen of penmanship from each child in the class should be inserted as the result of the previous month's teaching. The book should be so arranged that all of the child's work will be together, thus making it an easy task to discover the progress that each scholar has made.

Mark the writing very strictly.

In their other lessons, such as arithmetic, geography, etc., when written, mark the papers for the writing as well as for the subject-matter, and let this mark count in making up the average.—M. A. REQUA.

Examination for N. Y. State Certificates.

JULY 27, 1880.

DRAWING.

Oral Examination.

1. What is meant by inventive drawing, and what is its value compared with the copying of pictures?

2. Give some of the primary steps in inventive drawing?

3. Illustrate how inventive drawing may lead to the drawing of regular geometric forms.

4. Show how the drawing of geometric forms becomes the basis of object drawing.

5. What is the value of object drawing as a means of mental development—as an aid to the study of the natural sciences?

6. How does perspective differ from geometric drawing, and what is the use of each?

7. Show how inventive and object drawing may be made to lead directly to industrial drawing.

8. What are conventional forms used in industrial drawing, and upon what does their value depend?

9. What are the educational uses of inventive and industrial drawing?

10. Mention some of the uses of drawing in the business of life.

READING.

1. Mention two prominent objects to be kept in view in teaching pupils to read.

2. Give in detail the first steps of the method that you would employ in teaching primary classes.

3. What preparation should be made for each primary reading lesson?

4. What other exercises may be associated with primary reading, and what benefit will arise from the association?

5. How can the alphabet, spelling, punctuation and the use of capitals, be best taught?

6. Give your ideas of the advantages or disadvantages arising from having pupils criticize each other, and as to how criticisms should be made.

7. How and when should the science or oral reading be introduced?

8. What are some of the principal characteristics of good reading?

9. State your method of conducting an exercise in advanced reading; the attention you would give to the thought—to the expression.

10. Show how lessons in reading may be made to serve as exercises in literature, and to cultivate a literary taste.

BOTANY.

1. How can a knowledge of plants be best obtained?

2. What would be the benefit of an exercise in which the pupil should enumerate and write the names of all the plants that he knows?

3. What plants and what parts of the plant should be the subject of the first lessons?

4. What general facts should be noticed in the study of leaves, and in comparing different leaves what peculiarities may be taken as bases of classification?

5. Name all the parts of a plant and give the functions of each.

6. Name the different parts of plants that are used for the food of man, and give an example of each.

7. Besides furnishing food for men and animals, what are the most important uses of plants?

8. Mention some of the ways in which plants are propagated.

9. What part of botanical study is adapted to primary schools? Why?

10. Give some of the most important educational and practical advantages arising from the study of botany.

PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE.

1. Name the digestive organs.

2. Explain the processes of respiration; also of the circulation of the blood.

3. What are the leading causes of ill health in the school-room?

4. Why does frequent bathing promote health?

5. What position should generally be maintained by pupils in the school-room, and why?

6. State how, and why, exercise increases the circulation and purification of the blood.

7. Name the principal sources of impure air in the school-room, and the remedy for the same.

8. Why is severe physical or mental exercise, immediately after eating heartily, injurious to health?

9. Give some idea of the proper arrangement of light in the school-room, and of the management necessary to prevent diseases of the eye.

10. Give brief description of the nervous system, its functions, and the conditions of its healthful activity.

ZOOLOGY.

1. In what way can the first lessons in animals be made most profitable and interesting?

2. Give a general outline of the lessons which may be given upon the human body.

3. Describe the organs of locomotion of a man, of a cat, of a horse, of a robin, of a trout; showing their resemblances, relations and differences.

4. Give the general divisions of vertebrates, and show how you would teach the idea which this class represents.

5. Give some account of the structure and transformation of insects, with illustrations.

6. What are the four grand divisions (or sub-kingdoms) of animal life, and what are the characteristics of each?

7. Give your ideas of the relative importance of the subject and of the place it should occupy in the school course.

SCHOOL ECONOMY.

1. Describe a school-house to answer the requirements of a school, with an average attendance of fifty pupils; as to (a) size, (b) furnishings.

2. Name the prevailing faults in school and tell how you would remove them.

3. What particulars in respect to the external condition of the school premises demand daily inspection by the teacher?

4. Give your opinion of prize-giving in school and reasons therefor.

5. What professional works have you read? Give outline of one.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

1. Name the several departments of our government and tell what constitutes each.

2. Under the Constitution, what qualifications are necessary to make a person eligible for each of the following offices:

(1.) President? (1.) Vice-President? (3.) Senator?

(4.) Member of the House of Representatives?

3. What constitutes the judicial department of our national government?

4. State briefly how the President is chosen.

5. How are amendments to the Constitution of the United States made?

6. Draw a parallel between the government of the United States and that of our State.

7. Give the steps necessary to the making of a law by our State government.

8. How does the national government derive the resources for its support? How, the State government?

9. In every community why is government necessary?

10. Give the successive steps by which a person may lawfully vindicate his rights, and enumerate the tribunals which may pass upon the case.

METHODS.

1. Give brief analysis of the mental powers and the order of their development.

2. Give the successive steps in the objective or inductive treatment of a subject, and the objects attained by it.

3. Give the steps in the subjective or deductive process, and the objects to be attained it.

4. Give some of the uses and limitations of object teaching.

5. In preparing a course of study, what considerations should decide as to what belongs to the primary and what to the advanced course?

6. What place should oral teaching have in a school course, and what are some of the uses and abuses of text-books?

7. Give and illustrate some of the laws of primary teaching as now generally accepted.

8. Give comparison of rote teaching and rational teaching as to methods and results.

9. How are scientific and philosophic principles most successfully taught?

10. Give your ideas of industrial education; its methods, advantages and disadvantages.

GENERAL HISTORY.

1. Give some account of the Assyrian Empire, and of the siege and capture of its chief city.

2. Compare the civil politics of Athens and Sparta, and give some notable incident in the history of each.

3. Give a brief sketch of the extent and duration of the Roman empire.

4. Name and give the characteristics of the political system which controlled Europe for many years after the destruction of the Roman Empire.

5. Describe the first crusade, giving its causes and results.

6. When and how was "Magna Charta" obtained?

7. Give some account of India, and show how it has affected the history of the world.

8. Sketch briefly the achievements of Napoleon Bonaparte.

9. Sketch the progress of science during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

10. Name some of the great statesmen of Europe at the present time, giving the position which each occupies.

RHETORIC.

1. Name three points of excellence in style and tell what you mean by each.

2. How is clearness of expression best attained?

3. What evils would result from directly imitating the style of another.

4. How can a good style be best acquired?

5. State some advantages of figurative language.

6. Name five figures of rhetoric and illustrate each.

7. Show how figurative language may be made to weaken expression.

8. In treating a subject, give some idea of the most effective general arrangement of thought and the principles upon which such arrangement is founded.

9. What rhetorical advantages arise from extensive and discriminating reading?

10. When should the formal study of rhetoric be introduced into schools?

SCHOOL LAW.

1. What qualifications constitute a legal voter at a school meeting?

2. Mention some of the powers and duties of trustees.

3. What is the teacher's jurisdiction as to school property; also in maintaining order as to pupils, and as to outsiders?

4. What works a forfeiture of a teacher's contract?

5. What constitutes the legal qualification of a teacher?

6. How does it happen that persons become legally qualified to teach without possessing real qualifications?

7. How can a district change from three trustees to one, and from one back to three again?

8. State the necessary steps in condemning an unsuitable school-house.

9. How are persons appointed, who are entitled to free tuition, in the normal schools, under the statute?

10. How may a school organize under the "Union Free School Act," and what are the advantages of such organization?

GENERAL LITERATURE.

1. Mention some of the departments of literature for which Greece was famous, and name some prominent writer in each department.

2. Name the chief departments of Roman literature, and name a prominent author in each department.

3. Name the greatest epic poem in the English language.

Explain the characteristics of its verse, and give a short account of its author.

4. Name the leading English dramatist, and at least three works or plays written by him. In what reign did he live?

5. Give the names of some of the most noted English authors between the sixteenth and nineteenth centuries, and their respective departments of literature.

6. Name the most prominent English writer of the beginning of the present century, and some of his works.

7. Of English writers of the present century, name three historians, three novelists, and three poets, and one work of each.

8. Of American writers, name three historians, three poets, three writers of fiction, and some work of each.

9. Name ten distinguished living writers, and their respective departments of literature.

10. Name the author of each of the following works: "The Canterbury Pilgrims," "Gulliver's Travels," "Winter's Tale," "The Vicar of Wakefield," "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," "Marco Bozzaris," "Sketch Book," "Conquest of Mexico," "Heroes and Hero Worship," "Confessions of an Opium Eater," "Rhyme of the Ancient Mariner," "Lays of Ancient Rome," "Middlemarch," "Aurora Leigh," "Rise of the Dutch Republic," "Toilers of the Sea," "Hypatia," "Uncle Tom's Cabin," "The Heathen Chinese," "The Scarlet Letter."

For the NEW YORK SCHOOL JOURNAL.

Letters to a Teacher.—No. I.

OPENING OF THE SCHOOLS.

You will open your school again after the vacation, and if you are not careful you will fall into the same routine I saw in June last. Do you remember that I found you *cramping* your pupils on my visit? Yes, *cramping*, not teaching! You said to your pupils in algebra, "Repeat after me, The square of the sum of two quantities is the square of the first, plus twice the first into the second, plus the square of the second." Now when I came to question them I found that they partly knew what a square was. They knew nothing of what was meant by the first eight words. You could only teach that rationally by giving many examples.

I remember you gave as an excuse that your time was short, and that you could not take the best way of teaching, etc. But I now say to you that you have no right to treat human beings as you were treating those children. You were defrauding them. They came to be *educated*, and you were not only not doing that, but preventing the exercise of their reasoning powers. I hope you will bear this in mind this year. It is true I am only a friend and not a supervising officer, but if children are worth what is claimed then they deserve teaching, not *cramping*, at our hand.

Then again as to your questions. Did it ever occur to you that there are *laws* of questioning? It is even so. You must learn these laws. It would help you to study law and to cross-question witnesses, only it would take you ten years, and even then you might not do it well. But if a teacher cannot question well, she cannot teach. The best teachers are good questioners. You especially lacked in definiteness. The pupils could not make out what you meant on the first trial.

These are some of the errors I noticed. I will in another letter point out some other things that I think could be mended. If this letter is too critical, it is your fault; you asked me to make suggestions. Very truly,
E. R. G.

Be frank with your school. Frankness shows honesty and courage. Say just what you mean on every occasion, and take it for granted that you mean to do just what you say. If a pupil asks you a favor you should grant it, if it is reasonable; if it is not, tell him plainly why you can not. You will wrong him and wrong yourself by equivocation of any kind. Never say a wrong thing to make your school think you are smart. Deal kindly and firmly with all your scholars, and you will find it the policy which wears the best. Above all, do not appear to be what you are not. If you have any fault to find with any one, tell him, not others, of what you complain. There is no more dangerous experiment than that of undertaking to be one thing to a scholar's face and another behind his back. We should live, act and speak in our school what we are willing should be known by the whole district. It is not only best as a matter of policy.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES.

NEW YORK CITY.

SCHAUS'.—There are many striking pictures on exhibition at Schaus' art store, Broadway near Eight street. The large oil painting of clouds and ground by Edward You, which attracted hundreds to the window, has been removed to the private sales-room. A portrait of a child with flowers by Perrault, occupies its former place. The engravings of Elizabeth Thompson's battle pieces are still on exhibition.

ELSEWHERE.

BURTON, OHIO.—The Geauga Co., Teachers' Institute held a two weeks' session in this place, commencing Aug. 2nd. The instructors were Prof. J. Tuckerman, Austinburg, O.; Supt. C. W. Carroll, Chardon, O.; Mrs. A. T. Treat, Chardon, Ohio. Evening lectures were delivered by the following gentlemen: Prof. Geo. H. Colton, Hiram, O.; Supt. E. F. Moulton, Warren, O.; Hon. J. J. Burns, State School Commissioner, Columbus O.; Supt. C. W. Carroll, Chardon, O.; Prof. J. Tuckerman, Austinburg, O.; Prof. J. P. Treat, Geneva, O. The Institute was pronounced the best ever held in the county, which is saying a good deal, as our country is second to none in the State in regard to Institute work. The ex-committee deserve great credit for the success of the Institute.

THE EDUCATION OF ENGLISH GIRLS.—A certain routine of teaching is gone through, and you come out of the school-room with a society varnish intended to do duty until marriage, at which period custom allows you to dispense with surface accomplishments, and devote yourself to the realities of life. The moral atmosphere of the English home education is superior to that of American education in general. Girls are less forward and more respectful; they grow into women more slowly and ripen better; they are physically stronger, and therefore have simpler tastes; and as to society, they do not know what it means before at least the age of seventeen or eighteen. American girls have certain advantages, however, which custom denies young Englishwomen of good position; they are not forced by an unwritten law to go into society and play their part in it, while the English girl has no choice. —*Atlantic*.

PAYING COLLEGE EXPENSES.—Young men who have to work their own way through college receive an extra education, which is often more valuable than the teaching of president and professor. Their wits are sharpened to find out ways of earning money, and of saving it by stern economy. Lyman Beecher tells an amusing story of his senior year. It was near the close of the year, and while expenses were heavy, his purse was empty, and a note was due which had been given for borrowed money. The butler of the college (Yale) resigned six weeks before commencement. Beecher, seeing his opportunity, bought out the man's stock for three hundred dollars, and went into the business in dead earnest. He brought a load of water-melons and cantelopes, and trundled them over the college green in a wheelbarrow. The rich students laughed at him for being his own servant, but bought his melons. He traded in other commodities. Lyman made a capital trader and was amazed at his own success. He cleared enough in the six weeks to pay the butler for his goods, to take up the note for borrowed money, to meet all commencement expenses and to graduate with one hundred dollars in his pocket.

NEW YORK WATER SUPPLY.—The works soon to be undertaken for the enlargement of the system of water supply for New York city includes the construction of a fifteen foot dam at the outlet of Little Rye Pond, connecting both Big and Little Rye ponds, and forming a lake of 280 acres in extent, capable of storing 1,050,000,000 gallons. It is also proposed to build a dam on the Bronx, near Kensico, forty-five feet high, making a reservoir of 250 acres, having a capacity of 1,620,000,000 gallons. A dam will be built across the Byram River fifteen feet high, creating a lake with a capacity of 180,000,000 gallons. The Byram and Bronx rivers it is proposed to unite at this point. From the Kensico dam the water will be conducted through a four-foot iron pipe along the valley of the Bronx to a reservoir near William's Bridge in the upper part of the Twenty-fourth ward, the elevation of which is 180 feet above tide water and 65 feet above the Croton aqueduct, and the capacity one hundred million gallons. The length of this conduit is fifteen miles. The Kensico reservoir will give the city of New York eighteen million gallons more water daily. It is estimated that the work will be finished in about two years, and cost about \$2,700,000.

EDUCATIONAL MISCELLANY.

Education of the Teacher.

Viewed in the light of what is required at the hands of the teacher, his professional education includes:

1. A special training in those branches of science which he expects to teach, together with such other subjects as have a direct bearing upon them, and a knowledge of which would increase his professional skill.

2. A careful study of those subjects which underlie the science of education, and is likely study of the science itself.

3. A study of the art of teaching in its relations to the science of education, proved by actual training in the school of practice.

To secure an intelligent training in any one of these three lines of culture, from the very nature of the case, requires instruction in subject-matter. To accomplish the desire end otherwise is out of the question.—G. L. OSBORNE.

New Jersey.

Until 1867 there were town superintendents of schools. The State Board of Education in 1867 was authorized to appoint County Superintendents. The County Superintendent to each county together with two teachers selected by him became the County Examiners. The examinations are held quarterly on the same days throughout the State. The questions used are furnished by the State Superintendent, the method of conducting these examinations and of determining the results are the same throughout all the counties, and uniformity is thus secured in the results. The certificates issued by the County Boards are of three grades. A State Board of Examiners is also provided, which grants State certificates of three grades, the lowest of which is one grade above the highest issued by the county authorities.

The State Board of Education consists of the Trustees of the School Fund, the Trustees of the State Normal School and the Treasurer thereof. It has power to prescribe rules for the enforcement of the school law, to appoint the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and the County Superintendents, subject to the approval of their respective Boards of Freeholders, to decide all appeals from the decision of the State Superintendent, and reports annually to the Legislature.

The State Superintendent of Public Instruction is elected for three years. He decides all disputes arising under the school law, subject to appeal; apportions the school funds among the several counties, and issues his orders on the State Comptroller for the payment of the same. He is, *ex-officio*, Secretary of the Board of Education, President of the State Association of Superintendents, and a member of all State and County Boards of Examiners. He has a general oversight of all the schools of the State; issues instructions to the County Superintendents; prepares all blanks needed for the transaction of school business, and reports annually to the State Board.

County Superintendents hold office for three years. They apportion the school moneys among the several townships and districts, and issue orders for the payment of the same to the Township Collectors; examine and license teachers; fix the boundaries of school districts; decide all disputes under the school law, subject to appeal to the State Superintendent; fill all vacancies in Boards of Trustees, and make an annual report to the State Superintendent of the general condition of the schools. Each city has a City Superintendent.

School Trustees are elected by the voters of the district, and hold office for three years. Women are eligible for this office. Each Board consists of three Trustees, one of whom is elected District Clerk. The District Clerk preserves the financial records of the district, and takes a census of the school children each year. The Trustees have the power to employ teachers, janitors, etc., and fix their salaries; to erect and keep in repair all school buildings. The Trustees of the several districts in a township constitute an association, known as the Township Board of Trustees, which meets on the call of the County Superintendent, for the purpose of considering methods for the more effective management of the schools.

There is a State Board of Examiners, consisting of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and the Principal of the Normal School, who grant certificates of three grades: First, good for life; second, for seven years; third,

for five years. In each county there is a County Board of Examiners, consisting of the County Superintendent and such others, not exceeding three whom he may appoint. They also grant certificates of three grades:—First, good for three years; second, for two years; third, for one year. Examinations are held quarterly, and the questions used are uniform throughout the State. Each city has a City Board of Examiners, who are authorized to examine and license teachers.

Teachers' Institutes are held annually in each county. By a rule of the State Board of Education, all teachers are required to attend. To defray the expenses, the State appropriates one hundred dollars for each institute.

The State Treasurer, upon the order of the State Superintendent, is authorized to pay twenty dollars to any school that shall raise a like sum, by subscription or entertainment, for the purpose of establishing a school library, and ten dollars annually thereafter on the same condition.

No teacher is allowed to inflict corporal punishment. All children must attend school for twelve weeks, consecutively, each year, or be taught at home for the same period.

An appropriation of \$2,000 is set apart to supply the districts with metric apparatus.

Education and Instruction Defined.

A child is sent to school to acquire power and to acquire knowledge.

To educate is to develop power. To instruct is to impart knowledge.

We get the full force of the word *educate* by tracing it, not to *e-ducere*, to draw out or off, but to the verb *educare*, which "differs from its primitive *educere* in this respect, that, while the latter signifies to draw forth by a single act, *educare*, as a sort of frequentative verb, signifies to draw forth frequently, repeatedly, persistently, and therefore strongly and permanently; and, in a secondary sense, to draw forth faculties, to strengthen and train them."

The Latin verb *instruere*, from which we derive our *instruct*, means "to place materials together, not at random, but for a definite purpose,—to lay them one upon another in an orderly manner as parts of a preconceived whole." The mere aggregation in the mind of a pupil of a mass of disconnected ideas, is no more *instruction* than heaping bricks and stones together is building a house.

Instruction is the deliberate, orderly arrangement of knowledge in the mind of a learner: first, the elements which lie at the beginning, which make the foundation; then, in their order, the succeeding portions of the superstructure, each fitted to its place, each sustaining its proper relation to what rests under it or is founded upon it, until the whole stands in clear outline, a substantial and complete structure,—a thorough and systematic knowledge of one subject.

As an educator, the teacher's function is to develop, expand, strengthen, and discipline the powers of the child. As an instructor, he must know all about the material in which he works, the subject or branch of a subject which he proposes to teach, must choose his tools—apparatus, illustrations, and methods—wisely, and handle them deftly, and must understand the foundation upon which he builds,—in short, must be a skilled workman. But skill implies a knowledge of principles, thoughtful study, patient experiment, and persevering practice; and the skill to teach wisely and well demands thoughtful study, a correct knowledge, however acquired, of the principles, underlying the arts of education and instruction, patient experiment, and persevering practice.—Mrs. N. L. KING.

ASTRONOMICAL CLOCK.—At 733 Broadway (near Eighth street) there is on exhibition a wonderful clock, which is said to be greater than the one at Strasburg. The day of the week, month, year, season, signs of the zodiac, revolutions of the earth, the moon and its changes from quarter to half, three-quarters and full, the difference in time at Chicago, Cairo, Vienna and nine other places, as well as local time. There are figures and other things to make it attractive. At each hour Washington rises and the Presidents of the United States, down to Hayes, walk before him, dressed in the costumes of their time, saluting him as they pass, and disappear through a door which is closed by a servant, all to music. The clock is worth seeing; every one should be interested in the genius that could conceive such a gigantic plan and execute it. The children are not less pleased than the elders in examining it. The price of admission is twenty-five and ten cents.

Industrial Education.

How long shall we continue to ask, "Why is there so much poverty and crime in the world?" Is not this question answered in part by the facts shown by statistics that we pay more for the support and encouragement of everything which tends to degrade and destroy both family and country than we do for those which tend to elevate and strengthen.

We pay more for tobacco and beer than we do for bread and meat. Eight times as much for intoxicating drinks as we do for education. We pass hurriedly by the school-house and the church. How long before all will realize that it is the cause and not the effect we have to deal with, and that each one will reflect upon his own life for that experience which determines progress and better things.

Look at the following facts: The cost of courts, convictions, depredations on property and maintenance of prisoners in the United States each year, is \$500,000,000. Cost of same in New York, \$55,000,000. Twenty-seven public institutions in New York receive annually 175,000 persons at a cost of \$1,357,653 34. Local charity dispensed in New York city per year by over 300 societies, \$5,000,000. Three State prisons, six Penitentiaries, five Juvenile Reformatories, sixty seven Jails in New York State contain constantly 20,000 prisoners.

Take the first item. What would this amount to in five years, added to the small sum we pay for education, in promoting useful education? It is estimated that this sum, put into industrial schools, would afford educational facilities to the amount of \$150 apiece for every child in the land. "Industrial education," says an eminent professor, "would raise for us out of one generation of children, a cheerful, orderly, serviceable people"—ELIZABETH THOMPSON.

Education in Persia.

"Public instruction in every town of Persia is strictly attended to, although its aims may not come up to the standard of our nations of education. Almost every child, male or female, in the country, is sent to school to learn to read and write, or, at least, to learn to repeat certain favored passages of the Koran; and the natural intelligence of the children is vastly superior to that of European youths. The development of their intellectual faculties at an early age is so astonishing that small children will hold their own mature minds, and talk on subjects that would make our little folk of the same age stare with wonder. But, owing mainly to the fact that every book in Persian is a manuscript, and, consequently, inaccessible to the lower classes, on account of its high price, very few books are ever read by the people, and their progression as a nation is not marked."

Persia has been so often invaded and so many races have contributed to the empire, that the present inhabitants are not descendants from the famous Medes and Persians whose laws were unchangeable, yet their antiquated ideas are almost as unalterable as those ancient decrees; and the people will still talk of the four elements,—earth, air, fire, and water,—believed in the days of Plato, and will not be convinced that all such nations have long since been superseded and proven groundless by scientific discoveries. They still cling to the notion that the sun and all the stars revolve around the earth, which they believe to be motionless.

Logic, metaphysics, judicial astrology, astronomy, and mathematics are the branches of learning cultivated with the greatest degree of success. Geography is little understood, but mathematics are taught on better principles, owing to their possession of the works of Euclid. Alchemy is a favorite study, but chemistry is unknown. Their knowledge of medicine is but little in advance of the state of that science as left by Hippocrates and Galen, whose disciples they profess to be. Very little development is made in "fine arts," it being contrary to the true Mohammedan faith to make a representation of any created thing.

In a recent number of *Blackwood's Magazine*, an article on "suicide" gives some information. It speaks of the great revival of suicide during the past hundred years. Exact returns show a total of 61,000 persons in Europe dying by their own hand. The number is larger in the northern part of the country than in the south, Denmark showing the greatest number and Portugal the least. Twice as many suicides occur in the summer as in the winter. Youth has hitherto been thought to be almost free from this crime, but now two thousand boys and girls are yielding to it every year in Europe, and the numbers steadily increasing.

Care of the Eyes.

1. Rest the eyes for a few minutes when the sight becomes in the least painful, blurred, or indistinct.
2. Have sufficient light; never sit facing it; let it come from behind or from one side. The writer of this notice considers too much light almost as bad as too little. He strongly recommends a moderate light, so that surrounding objects may not be too much illuminated, and the wearing of a black shade, so large that front and side light may not enter the eyes. With this protection the light may be safely in front—if reading, it is better that it be to one side.
3. Never read in horse or steam cars.
4. Never read when lying down.
5. Do not read much during convalescence from illness.
6. The general health should be maintained by a good diet, air, exercise, amusement, and a proper restriction of the hours of hard work.
7. Take plenty of sleep. Retire early and avoid the painful evening lights. Ten hours' sleep for delicate eyes is better than eight.

Origin of Hazing.

The practice of hazing has an origin more ancient and more respectable than is generally supposed. Webster suggests that this word may be derived from a Swedish verb which signifies to hamstring; but he defines it thus: "To vex with chiding or reproof; to punish by exacting unnecessarily disagreeable or difficult duty; to play abusive tricks upon; used chiefly among college students and sailors." [In some institutions, the carrying of a cane by a freshman is considered a piece of arrogance not to be endured, and the offender is sometimes subjected to treatment of the most outrageous character. In others, the stove-pipe hat is held to be the dear prerogative of the advanced classes; and woe be to the freshman who presumes to wear one!]

The origin of hazing we find incidentally explained in a work upon "University Life in Ancient Athens," by Prof. W. W. Capes, of Oxford University. In ancient times, every professor was independent of the others, and carried on the business of teaching entirely on his own account.

In a city like Constantinople, Athens, or Marseilles, there would be, perhaps, four or five professors of about the same standing and celebrity, between whom there would be a feeling of rivalry, in which their students would sympathize. Many of the young men, who were particularly devoted to learning, would be enthusiastic partisans of their professor, and would exert themselves to the utmost in procuring for them new students and increased fees. When a young man arrived to pursue his studies, they would meet him at the shore, bear him off to the house of one of his countrymen, and use every means, fair and foul, to get him to join their classes.

Sometimes they resorted to violence. Professor Libanius, who flourished about A. D. 350, tells us how he feared when he arrived at the city of Athens to pursue his studies. After the dangers of a winter voyage from Constantinople, he was seized, on landing, by a band of students, and kept in confinement until he had taken an oath to join the class of the professor.

So hot was the rivalry between professors and classes that the town was sometimes in a continual riot, and the professors dared not walk the streets unless escorted by a band of their partisans. And just as in modern times, hazing is thought by some to be a fine thing, so these contests between rival classes had a kind of romantic attraction to students meditating a course of study.

The same Professor Libanius records that when, as a young man, he heard of the fighting in the streets of Athens among the students, of the clubs, stones and swords used, and on the wounds endured by the students for the honor of their teachers, he thought as highly of their courage as if they were fighting for their country, and he prayed Heaven that he, too, might one day join those noble contests, and carry off new comers from the boats in which they landed. The professor, too, were proud of the exploits of their pupils, and regarded the wounds which they showed in class as a proof of the love borne them.

In the course of time, however, the professors found it necessary to make common cause with one another, and entered into certain agreements for their common interest. As time went on, these agreements embraced more and

more particulars, until, at length, the body of instructors formed a university. The students were no longer attached to one professor only, but sought instruction from each of his own branch. From that time, the practice of hazing and seizing new comers had no significance, and the custom has been unknown in Europe for centuries. In this country, also, it is dying out, and is no doubt destined soon to pass away. That it should have been kept up so long as a curious instance of the survival of a practice after the circumstances in which it originated ceased to exist. It is more than a thousand years since new students were carried off in the manner described by Professor Libanius.

Formation of American Coal.

It is supposed that coal was formed during the carboniferous era, when the earth and the atmosphere were in a condition to produce an unlimited and gigantic growth of vegetation. That the coal beds had their origin during the vast vegetable growth of the carboniferous period, is a well attested fact; but the process by which the carbon and bitumen of that rank vegetation were concentrated and solidified, is a point on which scientists differ. The fact that there is no sign of vegetation in pure coal, indicates that the component parts have been expelled by heat or pressure, in the form of oil. If accumulated vegetation or woody fibre had formed coal, it would doubtless be fossiliferous. It seems natural, therefore, that the enormous oil deposits of the carboniferous era, resulting not only from resinous vegetation but also from the countless myriads of marine animals, when accumulated in localities having the requisite conditions, formed beds of coal. Great quantities of this oil were evidently sealed between rocky strata, and thus kept from solidifying, for want of exposure; and from these reservoirs issue the numerous oil-springs of the present day. Herodotus, two thousand years ago, referred to a spring on one of the Ionian Islands, which is still flowing. The Chinese *Hotsing*, or wells of fire, are gaseous petroleum springs, and are made of much practical service in evaporating salt water. There is a similar spring in Fredonia, New York, south of Lake Erie, the gas of which is used for lighting the town. Genoa and Parma, in the north of Italy, are similarly lighted. In Cuba petroleum springs are very numerous, and between the fissures of rocks it has consolidated in the form of bitumen, which is used for fuel. When petroleum is thus solidified by exposure to a moderate heat, it bears a strong resemblance to bituminous coal; but under a higher temperature, the hydrogen and oxygen are evaporated, leaving a comparatively pure carbon, resembling anthracite; and when subjected to an intense heat, the carbon is also vaporized, leaving only the impurities.

The best anthracite coal contains about ninety per cent of carbon, which is rendered gaseous by the ordinary process of combustion. From these facts we may infer that the various kinds of coal are due to different degrees of heat to which they were exposed during formation. The oily cannel coal was evidently formed with little heat, the ordinary bituminous with more, while the hard anthracite was subjected to such a degree of heat as left it nearly a pure carbon.

Oil being lighter than water, it readily accumulates on the surface of lakes, and on long exposure it forms a sheet of bitumen, or pitch, which in winter is hard, so that a man can walk on it with safety. There is such a lake on the island of Trinidad, one of the West Indies; and similar lakes are known to exist in other volcanic regions. Hence during the periods of vegetable and animal life, and of extraordinary volcanic activity, producing no doubt an abundance of oil directly from mineral sources, it is reasonable to suppose that immense bodies of water were thus covered to a great depth with plastic coal. The time of such formation necessarily corresponded with a period of volcanic inactivity. While forming, the sheet may have been occasionally sprinkled with a slight shower of ashes, causing an impurity in the coal, such as slate or bone, and a rent in the sheet, caused by contraction, may account for the fact that the miner sometimes suddenly loses the vein, and must grope for it through the rock. When volcanic action revived, the greatest imaginable charges must have taken place to account for the strata of rock overlying the seam. Between some of the seams the stratum is over two hundred feet thick. Showers of ashes or streams of lava may have sunk the sheet to the bottom, when, during the next period of inactivity, another seam may have been formed to be submerged in like manner, but perhaps with a stratum of only a few feet in thickness.

—*Christian Weekly*.

The Spelling Reform.

Most of the European nations, which use the Roman alphabet, have preserved a tolerably fonetic spelling. But when the Norman language, with the Anglo-Saxon, the resultant language, the English, appeared and finally settled with an orthography which is an approbrium the despair of foreigners, and which wastes years of each person's life in vain efforts to master it.

Many efforts have been made to reform our irregular orthography, but not till 1874 was the matter taken up by our scholars in such a way as to promise ultimate success. This history of this recent movement is as follows:

In 1874 the president of the American Filological Association, F. A. March, in the annual address spoke of the reform of spelling as one which students of language ought to promote. On that hint, apparently, appeals were poured in upon the Association to take action to direct a popular movement for reform. It was brought before the Association again, in 1875, by the president, J. Hammond Trumbull. A committee was appointed, to whom the matter was referred. The committee consisted of Professor W. D. Whitney, of Yale College; Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull, of Yale College; Prof. F. J. Child, of Harvard University; Prof. F. A. March, of Lafayette College; and Prof. S. S. Haldeman, of the University of Pennsylvania. At the annual meeting, in 1876, at New York, Prof. W. D. Whitney, Chairman of the committee, presented a report. It condemns historical spelling. The scholars want no etymology preserved in that way. It condemns the attempt to have letters for every distinguishable variation of sound. It describes an ideal alphabet as having one sign, and only one, for each elementary sound. And finally it declares that "the Roman alphabet cannot be displaced," and that it should be used "with uniformity, and in conformity with other nations." This report was widely published and assented to. But there was a loud call for more.

In 1877 an additional report was made, which gave a Roman alphabet for English use. It fixes the old letters in their Roman and Anglo-Saxon powers as nearly as may be, accepts the digraph consonants in *th*, *ch*, *sh*, etc., and declares it necessary to have three new letters for elementary vowels which were unknown to the early Romans, those in *fat*, *not*, *but*. For these it suggested modifications of *a*, *o*, and *u*. A diacritical mark—the macron—is added, when great accuracy is needed, to denote a long vowel sound. This alphabet was set forth, not with any hopes of immediate adoption, but as a guide in making minor changes. It is a necessary preliminary to any intelligent change.

The first work in this great reform is to drop silent letters. Any one can take this step in his private correspondence and his articles for the press. As a guide to such changes the American Filological Association have recommended the following eleven words: *The, thru, gard, catalog, ar, giv, liv, hav, definit, infinit, wissh*. And the Spelling Reform Association have recommended what are known as the "Five Rules";

- 1.—Omit *a* from the digraph *ea* when pronounced as *e*-short, as in head, health, etc.
- 2.—Omit silent *e* after a short vowel, as in hav, giv, etc.
- 3.—Write *f* for *ph* in such words as alfabet, fantom, etc.
- 4.—When a word ends with a double letter, omit the last, as in shal, cliff, eg, etc.
- 5.—change *ed* final to *t* where it has the sound of *ft*, lasht, imprest, etc.

The Reform is well under way. Hundreds of scholars, professors and presidents are using reformed spelling in their correspondence, and many papers—notably, the *Chicago Tribune* and the *New York Home Journal*—have adopted many changes. Teachers who are natural leaders in such a needed reform should not be the last to support it.

POINTS ON MANAGEMENT.—1. Do not talk too much. "In a multitude of words there wanteth not sin; but he that refraineth his lips is wise."

2. Never be sarcastic. "There is that speaketh like the piercing of a sword, but the tongue of the wise is health."

3. See nothing, yet see everything. Take immediate action upon few misdemeanors. They are not half so bad as your imagination makes them.

4. Do not worry. Teach under "high pressure." Govern under "low pressure."

5. Some pupils expect you to scold them. By all means disappoint them.

6. Never become discouraged. "If thou faint in the day of adversities, thy strength is small."

7. "With-hold not good from them to whom it is due when it is in the power of thine hand to do it."

The New Education.

The beginning of all knowledge lies in the development of the five senses, and that the unfolding of the perceptive powers, aided by memory, lays the foundation from all future gain. The five senses act as agents in picking up knowledge, memory packs it away in the warehouse of the brain, becoming responsible for its preservation. This is the natural method of mental growth.

Concerning the modes of education in use among the true ancients—the old Hebrews the Persians, the Egyptians, the Assyrians, etc.—we know next to nothing; but coming down the stream of time we find ourselves amidst the Greeks, a cultured race, with distinct, well-defined ideas of mental development. Their system of education was not simple cramming in history and the sciences, but a gradual unfolding of thought-powers by the Socratic system of questions and answers leading to a definite result. What the Greek mind accomplished through powers cultured by this method is shown by sculpture no nation since has been able to equal; by architecture that is the admiration of the world, and by literary works whose exquisite finish and grand proportions are the despair of all modern writers. Everywhere these people are known as the "incomparable Greeks." To what can we ascribe their superiority if not to their system of education?

A fatal fault was their disdain for what Bacon calls the "fruit" of mental activity. The Greek philosophy despised utility; any knowledge devoted to material uses was debased. For a philosopher to invent anything of service to the people, a help in any agricultural or mechanical pursuit, was at once to lower himself in public estimation. Anything like modern philanthropy, working for the good of others, was almost unknown to the ancient Greeks and Romans; of course there was not among them any provision for the education of the masses of the poor. The Roman tried to mould his civilization after the Greek model, and hence it was necessary for students to become familiar with Greek works in manuscripts; thence arose the fashion of studying books in connection with lectures from philosophers, teachers, and orators.

We have hitherto followed too closely the medieval methods, devoting ourselves too much to books and memorizing set subjects, but there are indications of a revolution and a return to old Greek modes of mental development. Though we can imagine nothing superior to Plato's instruction for men of his day, yet our state of society demands something different. Now there is such a vastly greater sum of knowledge which every one must acquire to act with any power in modern life, that one must have at command methods of acquiring facts and ideas with far greater rapidity than in those calmer Greek days. Hence, the "New Education" strives to combine the excellencies of the lecture with the study of books. Froebel has given us the Kindergarten method of opening the youthful mind, keeping its powers fresh and alert, whilst knowledge and a thirst for knowledge are gradually insinuated. Without mental pain or strain the first steps are taken, and with beautiful gentleness the young mind is unfolded as April showers with warm tenderness open the flowers of May, and insure the fruit of September. Teachers are beginning to learn that minds are not, like homogeneous; that the pruning, training, teaching that is fitted to one youth, is not just that which will be best help another. It is true that all the leading faculties are present in every normally developed mind, but they combine in such entirely different proportions in every different human being, that results are widely divergent. To early injuries inflicted upon the brain by the attempts of parents and teachers to force distasteful knowledge into reluctant minds, we may ascribe many of the vagaries and much of the insanity of later years. Teachers should strive to love their pupils, that they may more certainly avoid doing them involuntary injury; we are not apt to pain those we truly love. And pupils should not be forced to attend the instruction of teachers whom they distrust and dislike.

We trust the old ways of coercion and force in education will finally pass entirely away, and knowledge will be inculcated only in sweet, kindly words by loving and tender teachers. No morose, irritable, quarrelsome nature should ever be allowed to become a teacher of the young. The world has been too long under the dominion of rough, hard, cruel natures: it is quite time particular attention should be paid to the disposition of those to whom early education is intrusted, and unkind, uncharitable, evil tempered teachers should be as rigidly

discarded as are those of immoral character. The spiritual standard should be far higher, and the graces of the Spirit should be as strictly demanded as the graces of knowledge, or the ability to impart learning.

The "New Education" in our Eastern States has taken the name of the "Quincy Method," from the success with which Col. Parker has combined and utilized in practice the good points of Froebel, Fénelon, Horace Mann, the ancients, and Col. Parker. The key-note of the method is making knowledge and school attractive. When plants and flowers are universally introduced, and fine engravings decorate the school-walls, and the sweet courtesy of the best drawing-rooms is invariably shown by pupil and teacher, and the spirit of love prevails, then will the "New Education" be seen and known as the "True Education."—*Phrenological Journal*

The Design of Education.

The design of education is two-fold. First, to secure the right action of the mind; second, the acquisition of knowledge.

The teacher, as an educator, must know what the different mental powers are, the order of their development, and how they are called into right activity; and he must know each pupil as an individual. He must also know the different kinds of knowledge, the order of their acquisition, and the method of their acquisition. Right habits of observation, of thought, of feeling, of action, are to be established.

A course of study is required for the training of the mind. The course needed for this purpose is a series of objects and subjects for study, arranged according to the order of mental development. This course of study, from the nature of the mind, must be in two divisions—an elementary course for training the mind in gaining a knowledge of facts about individual objects; and a scientific course, for training the reflective faculties in acquiring general ideas and truths, and knowledge systematically arranged.

The elementary course must be so conducted as to prepare the mind for the scientific course. The principles of education are derived from a study of the mind. The methods of study and teaching are derived from these principles.

RELATION OF THE WORKINGMEN TO EDUCATION.—Now, what are the results of this particular favor? The most striking result is that the wealthier class think that it is their right and their duty to direct the education of the people. They deserve no blame. As long as they pay by rate and tax for a part of this education, they undoubtedly possess a corresponding right of direction. But having the right they use it; and in consequence the workman of today finds that he does not count for much in the education of his children. The richer classes, the disputing churches, the political organizers, are too powerful for him. If he wishes to realize the fact for himself, let him read over the names of those who make up the school boards of this country. Let him first count the ministers of all denominations, then of the merchants, manufacturers and aquires. There is something abnormal here. These ministers and gentlemen do not place the workmen on committees to manage the education of their children. How then comes it about that they are directing the education of the workmen's children? The answer is plain. The workman is selling his birthright for the mess of pottage. Because he accepts the rate and tax paid by others, he must accept the intrusion of these others into his own home affairs—the management and education of his children. Remember, I am not urging, as some do, the workmen to organize themselves into a separate class, and return only their own representatives as members of school boards; such action would not mend the unprofitable bargain. To take away money from other classes, and not to concede to them any direction in the spending of it, would be simply unjust—would be an unscrupulous use of voting power. No, the remedy must be looked for in another direction. It lies in the one real form of independence—the renunciation of all obligations. The course that will restore to the workmen a father's duties and responsibilities, between which and themselves the state has now stepped, is for them to reject all forced contributions from others, and to do their own work through their own voluntary combinations. Until that is done no workman has more, or has a claim to have more, than half rights over his own children. He is stripped of one half of the thought care, anxiety, affection, responsibility and need of judgment which belong to other parents.—*Popular Science Monthly*.

Educational Power.

The true teacher must have the faith of martyrs. In the limited horizon of the school-room, the teacher can dimly see only the beginning of the effects of his training upon his pupils. The solid and lasting results, the building up of character, the creative power of motives, are made evident only in the wider circle of the world, and at the end of a life-time. Hence the power of the teacher, like that of the silent and invisible forces of nature, is only feebly realized. "What you would have appear in the life of a nation," says a Prussian maxim, "you must first put into the schools."

I once visited a quartz mine in the Sierra, of fabulous richness. Deep in the bowels of the earth, swarthy miners were blasting out the gold-bearing rock above, the powerful mill was crushing the quartz with its iron teeth. In the office, piles of yellow bars, ready to be sent to the mint to be poured into the channels of trade, showed the immediate returns of well-directed labor and wisely invested capital. An hour later, I stepped into a public school-house not half a mile distant, where fifty children were conning their lessons. What does the school yield, I asked myself, on the investment of money by the State. The returns of the mine were made mostly in solid bullion; the school returns were all far in the unknown future.

I go out into the streets of the great commercial centre of our country. I hear everywhere the hum of industry, and see around the stir of business. I see the steamships plying like gigantic shuttles to weave a net-work of commercial relations between the new world and the old. I see the smoke of manufactories where skillful artisans are constructing the marvelous productions of inventive genius. The banks are open; keen capitalists are on 'Change; and the full tide of humanity is pulsating through every artery of the town. The results of business are solid and tangible. I step into the New York Normal College where a thousand young women are fitting for the profession of teaching, and if asked for the tangible results of the educational investment, the evidences are not at hand.

But when I pause to consider that intelligence is the motive power of trade; that the city with its banks, warehouses, churches, residences, and manufactories, is the product of skilled labor; that the steamship is navigated by means of science, and is built as a triumph of art; that science surveyed the railroad lines, and that skill runs the trains freighted with the products of industry and art; then I begin to perceive some connection between educational forces and the material results of civilization.

Looking into the near future, I see the aisles of the school-room widen into the broad streets of the city. The boys are business men. One commands the steamship, one operates the telegraph, and another runs an engine; one is a railroad director, and another rides over the road to take his seat in the senate of the United States. One works a gold mine, another an iron mine, and another a coal mine; one is a merchant, one a banker, one a Wall street speculator, one is a farmer in the west, another a manufacturer in the east; one is a merchant, another a mechanic, and a third is an inventor. The girls have become women. Some preside as queens in home circles, some are teachers, some are writers, some are artists, and others are skilled in household work. I realize that the life of a nation is made of nothings that guard the homes, the men who drive the plough, build the ships, run the mills, work the mines, construct machinery, print the papers, shoulder the musket, and cast the ballots; and it is for all these that the public schools have done and are now doing their beneficent work. When I ponder over the far-reaching influence of the teacher and the school, I comprehend, in some measure, the relation to our national well-being, of our American system of free public schools—the best, notwithstanding its defects and short-comings, that the world has ever known. It is the duty of every teacher to strive with all his heart and with all his soul, and with all his might, to perfect a system of education which shall train a race of men and women in the next generation, that shall inherit, with the boundless resources of our favored land, something of the energy, enterprise, talent, and character of the sturdy pioneers who settled and subdued the wilderness, in addition to the refining influences of a higher culture and a broader knowledge.—JOHN SWETT in the *Pacific School and Home Journal*.

THE two leading educational papers, *New York School Journal* and *TEACHERS' INSTITUTE* are published by E. L. Kellogg & Co.—*Rapid Writer*.

Some of the Schools of Paris.

The two chief institutions at Paris for higher education are the University and the College of France. The University, or more properly speaking, the Academy of Paris, —a branch of the University of France,—was founded by Napoleon I. in 1808, and comprises five faculties,—law, medicine, theology, letters, and sciences. The last three of these are usually called the Sorbonne, from the name of the old building in which they are located. Another faculty has been recently added, almost entirely devoted to philology and archaeology; as yet it seems not to be very successful, students not being found to patronize it.

Beside the University, but independent of it, stands the venerable College of France, which has grown up by successive additions to two chairs—Greek and Hebrew—founded by Francis I. in 1529. The present number of chairs is about thirty, devoted, with a few exceptions, to the humanities. Its corps of professors, past and present, includes many of the greatest names among French savants. At present, for instance, there are such men as Laboulaye, Taine, Renan, Charles Blanc, Adolph Franck, Levasseur, Leroy Beaulieu, Guillaume Guizot, &c. The art of lecturing is found here in its perfection; a French lecture is brilliant *par excellence*. The courses at the College of France, as well as the greater number of those at the Sorbonne, are popular in their character; they are all free, and open to the public. Consequently the audiences are of a heterogeneous nature; they include nearly all classes of society, the blouse even being not unrepresented. Middle-aged and elderly people are, perhaps, in a majority; and ladies often form more than half the audience. Law and medical students are required to attend at least two courses in belles lettres, but, in fact, they seldom do so; and generally the student class is conspicuous by its absences at the Sorbonne and College of France.

Of the special schools of Paris, one of the most interesting is the School of Political Sciences, founded about nine years ago by M. Boutmy. It seems to take the place of the former "Administrative School," founded by the government, but which proved a failure. The full course covers a period of two years; and the object of the school is practical instruction in political sciences. There are two general sections,—that of administration, and that of diplomacy. The ground covered by lectures and conferences is increasing somewhat from year to year; at present the curriculum for the two years includes about the following subjects: administrative organization compared; administrative affairs; the financial system of the principal states; public revenues and imposts; financial legislation and public accounts; organization of financial revenues, and rules of public accounts; political economy; commercial legislation compared; judicial organization; history of treaties of commerce since 1786, and the customs *regime* of France; history of treaties from the Peace of Westphalia to 1789; analysis of the principal treaties from 1648-1789; diplomatic history of Europe since 1789; organization of the diplomatic service (practical exercises); constitutional history of France, England, and the United States, in the last hundred years; parliamentary and legislative history of France from 1789 to 1852; analysis of the constitutions of Belgium, Switzerland, Germany, and Austria-Hungary; law of nations; private international law resulting from treaties, and the consular service; geography and ethnography; statistics; industrial and commercial geography; civil legislation compared; the English and German languages. Of these courses one may take the whole, or any lesser number he chooses. The library, though not large, yet contains most of the practical works necessary for consultation, as also the leading foreign journals and periodicals. The council of administration and the corps of instructors are composed largely of distinguished men; many of them being connected also with the University or the College of France.

It will be seen from the above program of studies that the school furnishes a practical education in every department of the government; and more than this, by a selection of courses, it may be made a fitting supplement to a liberal education for any one who would take a part or an interest in public affairs. The instruction, as will be seen, is largely comparative; and the diplomatic side is particularly strong. Another advantage to the foreigner is, that he comes in closer contact with the French student than is possible at the universities.

If there existed a permanent and regulated civil service in the United States, we might introduce such schools with great advantage. As it is, the class of young men

would doubtless be small who would take such a course without any ulterior practical object in view. We have no treatises, even, which teach the practical workings of the different departments of the government; and the candidate who is fortunate enough to obtain a position generally comes to it a novice in all that pertains to it.—*Harvard Register*.

ARE YOU EDUCATED.—We praise our educational system and boast of our culture, but if the cheap talk that a listening traveller hears is the sum of it all, then much of our boasting is vain glory. Nothing will test the real character so well as a man's or woman's deportment when travelling. Nothing emphasizes the shallowness of the average life more than the conversation one hears by the wayside. Four bright appearing, interesting young women sat opposite us in a recent car ride, and for an hour they compelled us to listen to all the little details of home society, fashions and scandals. At last one of them said, with a yawn, "Let us play cards." When we got to the end of the route we waited to see what hotel they went to, that we might go to another. What a pity people would not think more and talk less, and act as well away from home as they do at home.—*Golden Rule*.

FOR THE HOME.

Robinson Crusoe Excelled.

This interesting account in *Scribner's Magazine* for September we have arranged for our COMPANION readers:

On the map of the Pacific ocean you will see the Society Islands, quite a distance south of the Sandwich Islands, and close beside them the islands of Santa Barbara; they are in reality about thirty miles away. The nearest of this group is about twenty-five miles from the main-land. They are uninhabited, and have been for years. The nearest are used for sheep pastures, shepherds going regularly over in sail-boats to shear the sheep and bring back the wool. The more distant islands are beds for the otter and seal. The sea lions and sea-elephants in the Centennial exposition, New York aquarium and Cincinnati zoological gardens were lassoed off the outlying islands of the south Barbara group. Boats visit here also for rare shells, which are sold by the ton at the San Francisco wharf and are carried all over the world to make pearl-buttons and other ornaments.

San Nicolas, the outermost of this group, is seventy miles from the coast and thirty miles from its nearest neighbor. It has been desolate for years. About 1830 a few Indians tilled the soil, and herded the flocks, but in the spring of 1835 a sail-boat was sent from Santa Barbara to bring them all away. A violent storm occurred just as they were about embarking. In the excitement and confusion of leaving their home, a child was left behind. The mother supposed it had been carried aboard, and upon discovering her mistake she frantically implored the men to return. The captain insisted that he must get to a place of safety; when the storm was abated he would return for the baby. Finding they were going out to sea, the young mother became frantic and leaped overboard. The surging waters closed over her and she was lost in the darkness. They made no attempt to rescue her, in fact it was impossible to do so. The next morning, when under clear skies, they were too far away to think of returning for an uncertainty. The owners of the vessel planned many times to go in search of the lost woman, but the distance and final loss of the boat the next year prevented them from carrying out the design. The sad circumstance was almost forgotten. For fifteen years no one visited San Nicolas, then a party went to hunt for seals. They returned with glowing accounts of the otter and seal, and fish of rare kinds that harbored near its shores, but they saw nothing on shore to attract their attention except a curious hut which they supposed some Indian had built years before.

It was in 1853 that the captain of a small schooner determined to make another trip to this distant shore. They landed and made a camp. The night after their arrival they noticed the print of a slender foot upon the sand. The captain immediately called out in Spanish that the woman of San Nicolas was actually alive. The men called again and again, hoping to attract attention; but in vain. The next day they found a basket made of rushes hanging upon a tree. It held bone-needles, threads made of sinews, and a partly-made robe of birds' feathers neatly matched and sewed together. They also found dried fish fastened in the crevices of rocks near springs of fresh water, and two or three brush houses open to the sky, with poles stretched across and dried-meat hanging on them. Each and all convinced these men that some one had, until very recently, been upon the island, but after days of unsuccessful search they returned to their fishing.

The captain, however, when their work was done, would not leave the island without a more thorough search. He was convinced that some one was living and hiding perhaps in some

secluded spot unknown to them. With a good deal of reluctance, they prepared for a final hunt. At the upper end they found a hut and a basket, but the weeds were growing inside and nothing about the place had been disturbed for months. After several days' march and a dangerous climb over slippery rocks, they picked up a piece of drift-wood that had been dropped, and saw fresh foot-prints. From a high point on the rocks the captain could see the men on the shore below; and as he looked he saw a small dark object slowly moving on the hill near by. With great care he approached close enough to see that it was the head of a woman who was crouching in some bushes, watching the movements of the men below. Her hair was long and hung in a tangled mat upon her shoulders. The captain, overjoyed at the success of his long search, put his hat upon his gun as a signal to his comrades that he had found something, and before they approached, he stepped forward and spoke to her. The woman was very much startled, ran a few steps, but stopped and spoke in an unknown language. When the others reached the spot she greeted them with a quiet dignity that affected them. She was between forty and fifty years of age, apparently in excellent health, of light-colored skin and brown hair, and was dressed in a garment made of birds' feathers, which was low in the neck, without sleeves reaching to her ankles. It was similar to the one found in the basket. She began immediately to prepare food, roasting some roots in the ashes, but none of the party could understand a word she said. They at last showed by signs that they expected her to go with them. When she comprehended what was meant she helped pack her baskets, and started with one slung over her back for the shore. She entered the boat and seemed perfectly at home on the schooner. They made her a skirt of ticking, and this with a man's cotton shirt and a gay handkerchief replaced the feather dress, which the captain wished to preserve. She seemed very much interested in all that went on about her, and by degrees she told by signs of her life upon the island. How from time to time she had seen ships pass, but none had come to take her off. She would watch them as long as she could see them and then fling herself upon the ground and weep. She had also seen people on the beach several times, but was afraid and hid until they were gone. She told also that when her people left the island she had a little babe, that the ship sailed away, and she could not find her child. Then she was very ill, and she lay for days in a bed of plants resembling cabbage, without strength to move. She sucked the cabbage leaves, and finally crawled to a spring; when revived she rubbed two sticks together and finally produced a spark of fire. Then how careful she was to preserve the fire, and how difficult it had been. She had lived on fish, roots, blubber and shell-fish, and the feathers she made into clothing she secured from birds on their roosts at night. So for eighteen years this woman had lived alone on this island of the sea.

When the schooner reached Santa Barbara she was taken care of by the captain's wife. Every effort was made to discover some of her race, Indians were brought from all parts of the country, but only a few words of her language were ever understood. She was so cleanly, tasteful, amiable, imitative, and affectionate that many believed she belonged to a superior tribe. Some thought she had drifted from some wreck after the Indian woman had perished in the sea. However, she was greatly disappointed that none of her kindred were found; she drooped under civilization, she missed the outdoor life of her island home. After a few weeks she was too weak to walk, and was carried and laid in the open air. Her kind hostess procured seal's meat and roasted it in the ashes, but while she seemed grateful she could not eat. When death was near they baptized her in the beautiful Spanish "Juana Marie," and in the walled cemetery of Santa Barbara they buried this devoted mother—the heroine of the island of San Nicolas. A lady in San Francisco has some of the islander's needles, the captain and mate retain her curious water-tight baskets, the feather robes were sent by the Mission fathers to Rome. They were made of the satiny plumage of the green cormorant, the feathers pointing downward, and so skillfully matched as to appear one continuous sheen of luster. The record of her baptism is in the church, and her grave is pointed out to the stranger in Santa Barbara.—*Scholar's Companion*.

Horsford's Acid Phosphate.

MAKES A DELICIOUS DRINK.

Dr. M. H. HENRY, the widely known and eminent family physician, of New York, says:

"Horsford's Acid Phosphate poses claims as a beverage beyond anything I know of in the form of a medicine, and in nervous diseases I know of no preparation to equal it."

ACCORDING to Prof. Read of London, the world, by geological evidence, has reached the mature age of 600,500,000 years.

The New York School Journal is a fine paper.—*Qui Vive*.

BOOK DEPARTMENT.

NEW BOOKS.

Publishers will favor themselves and us by always giving prices of books.

PRACTICAL LESSONS IN ENGLISH. By J. M. B. Sill, A. M., A. S. Barnes & Co. New York.

The author is the Superintendent of Public Schools in Detroit. He has given us his views of English grammar, from the standpoint that the English language is almost a grammarless tongue. This page he throws down in his preface and he maintains his position with a good deal of energy; a careful reading of the volume fails to convince us that there is an absurdity in the five English verb forms, and in attributing voices, moods, persons and numbers to them. The practical directions found in the volume will be found very serviceable. In fact the volume is intended to be of a most practical character, and the author, by means of the numerous examples for writing and parsing makes the pupil understand the nature of his own language. The notes and explanations are very clearly written and in this respect the pupil will have many occasions of thankfulness. The volume certainly has decided merits on the ground of clear statements and easy explanation. It is well printed and neatly bound.

ELEMENTARY LESSONS IN ENGLISH. By Mrs. N. L. Knox, Boston: Ginn & Heath.

A hurried review was given to this volume some months since. We have now given it a more careful examination. It is plain that the old time method of teaching grammar is about to pass out of existence. It served some good purposes. If a pupil got far enough to be thoroughly grounded in the rules of syntax, he might receive a good mental drill—such as Prof. Tyndall delighted to refer to. But, suppose he did not proceed so far as that? Why all his knowledge of declensions and conjugations was mere lumber. This book proceeds on a different ground. It proposes to make such a use of the time the pupil spends on studying his language that he will gain practical good at every step. This is certainly desirable.

First, the pupil by oral lessons is led to know names and how to write them—that is that names of persons should be in capitals, etc. This feature (the practical feature) crops out at the beginning, and is apparent all the way through—it is an admirable feature. Initials, follow. Next the statement is explained; then its facts.

By gradual progress the pupil proceeds to learn that words may be used to show quality, action, possession, etc. The subject of letter writing follows and this is thoroughly and beautifully handled. There are two volumes issued, one containing the subject matter for the pupil and the other giving suggestions to the teacher. The teachers' edition is worth many times its cost; it is full of suggestions towards a really philosophic mode of teaching. We give the volume a hearty welcome.

AN ELEMENTARY ARITHMETIC. By George E. Seymour. St. Louis: G. I. Jones & Co.

This is a sound volume and has been prepared by one who understands what he is about. An examination of the volume leads us to believe that it possesses merits that will warrant its selection for use in the school-room and that it will give satisfaction. It covers the ground of the four grand rules—fractions and compound numbers. All are well treated. The book is well bound and printed.

AN ELEMENTARY GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND CHIEFLY (FOUR) IN EN-

LISH GRAMMAR. By J. R. Vickroy. G. I. Jones & Co. St. Louis.

The first of the volumes is a small book in which the essentials of grammar are taught in the form of questions and answer. The various inflections are clearly laid down. Analysis and Parsing follow. It is well arranged. The second volume consists of four excursions by which the elements of grammar are gradually taught. The pupil receives cultivation in language, he learns how to use language. The use of capitals, punctuation marks, etc., are taught. The volume is an admirable one.

SOME THOUGHTS CONCERNING EDUCATION, by John Locke. With introduction and notes by Rev. R. H. Quick, M. A. London: MacMillan & Co. Price ninety cents.

The reprint of Locke's "Education," has at last been accomplished, and in a faithful and thorough manner. A biographical and critical notice by Prof. Quick proceeds Locke's intelligent "Thoughts" on the education of children in which the whole nature is considered. These are followed by Locke's papers, on Working Schools and Study, and notes by Dr. J. F. Payne of St. Thomas' Hospital, which explain otherwise obscure references to hygiene and medicine.

ESSAYS. By Thomas Carlyle. Price twenty cents. **JOHN PLOUGHMAN'S TALKS,** by Charles Spurgeon, and **ON THE CHOICE OF BOOKS,** by Thomas Carlyle. Price twenty cents. New York: I. K. Funk & Co.

These are two of the Standard Series, the first named number eight, the latter (two books in one), the first published. They need no recommendation, Carlyle has many warm admirers in this country, and Spurgeon's fame as a preacher has reached us. We wish to mention one of the excellent features of this series which we have just noticed. The works are classed into A. B. C., and so on, the letters corresponding to biography, history, etc. Now Carlyle's Essays begin at page 66—the first in that number and other Essays, take up the page where Carlyle's left off. The object of this is plain. Those who desire it can bind several books together, all of one class, and have for a small sum a good-sized standard library.

MR. BODLEY ABROAD. By the author of The Bodley's Afoot, The Bodleys Telling Stories, etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Price \$1.50.

This is the fifth of Mr. Scudder's series of books for children, and a very delightful set they are; just the book that children will read and be profited by. "Mr. Bodley Abroad" is a capital book to be read aloud by an older person; each chapter can be expanded with side notes and remarks. For instance, a letter from Mr. Bodley, who is England, tells of his visit to Abbotsford, and several illustrations are given. The subject is not exhausted when Mrs. Bodley gets out Scott's autobiography and reads portions of it, the children asking questions. The cover is unique in design and the whole "get up" of the volume handsome and substantial.

TILTON'S DESIGN CARDS. S. W. Tilton, 393 Washington street, Boston.

These are constructed to teach water-colors to beginners. Many persons removed from the vicinity of a teacher, would gladly learn something of water-colors; but being wholly without a guide, they are too timid to make any effort to learn. In the first place they are uncertain about the colors. From a long published list, whose prices startle them, they have not the slightest idea which to choose. In fact those

who have painted in oils are puzzled what colors to select when beginning to paint in water colors, because the method of using one of the simplest aids to the would-be pupil can be found in Tilton's design cards, of which there are seven series. They are put up in packages of six cards, each with a faintly traced design, to be tinted according to printed directions. They can be painted with six colors (sent if desired,) and different tones being formed from these. The directions are good and especially with the sample cards already tinted, there would be no difficulty in copying them. The little figures on some of the cards would be exceedingly pretty, on tiles, china or plaques, or for applique embroidery. Pupils as well as teachers will find these cards very serviceable.

MAGAZINES.

The important papers in the September *Harper's* are "The American Graces," by Eugene L. Didier; "The Family of George III.," by K. M. Rowland, and "Squatter Life in New York," by Wm. H. Rideing, all illustrated. The two first are of historical interest, one explaining how Queen Victoria came to the throne, the other giving portraits of three American sisters of Baltimore who married the nobility of England. Five pages of verse and flowers will hold for a long time one's attention, with the delicate shadows thrown in back ground, which Mr. W. Hamilton Gibson executes so exquisitely. The stories, continued and short, are strong. Two illustrated papers of interest by Mr. W. H. Bishop, and Mrs. Davis conclude their series.

As each month brings us a fresh number of *Appleton's Journal*, we think how improved it is from a year ago, and how steadily it advances. The August was a particularly good number, but the September, now before us, exceeds that. The conclusion of the novelette "Edge-Tools" is given. This is followed by the third paper on the influence of art in daily life, referring directly to "Furnishing the House." From *Cornhill* is reprinted a paper on "Sterne." T. M. Coan criticizes "Mr. Stoddard's Poems." "The Story of Adrienne Leconteur" will interest many who are looking forward to Sarah Bernhardt's representation of this character. James Payn tells about "Story Telling"—from *Nineteenth Century*, six subjects are discussed through the Editor's Table.

The illustrations to the opening article in *Lippincott's* for September, "Among the Florida Lakes," interest one at once in the text. The concluding paper to "Canoeing on the high Mississippi river" follows. The author of "Signor Mondalini's niece" has a short paper. "Newport a hundred years ago" and "Horse-racing in France" are two of the descriptive articles.

The *North American Review* contains: "The ruins of Central America," by Desire Charnay, "The perpetuity of Chinese institutions" by S. Wells Williams, "The trial of Mrs. Surraut," by J. W. Clappitt, "The personality of God" by W. Harris, "Steamboat disasters" by R. B. Forbes, "Insecurity in the pulpit" by E. E. Hale, and "Recent works on the brain and nerves" by Geo. M. Beard.

One of the most attractive features of the September *Scribner's* is the first part of a life of "Jean Francois Millet—Peasant and Painter." Another entertaining article is headed "Mr. Pickwick and Nicholas Nickleby;" a remarkable story of a woman who lived "Eighteen Years Alone" on an uninhabited and almost unknown island in the southern sea, is remarkable. Mr. and Mrs. R. Swain Gifford illustrate a paper on "When Woods are Green."

The first article in the current *Popular Science* is "The science of comparative jurisprudence" by Wm. M. Ivins. Three papers on educational topics, a biography, four natural history articles, are among the table of contents.

For September the *Atlantic* gives us an article on Scott, by Thomas Sergeant Perry, an article on the "Political Responsibility of the Individual," by R. R. Bowker, a "cute" story by Ellen W. Olney, part first of some entertaining tales on "Intimate Life of a Noble German Family." There are also the book criticisms, for which the magazine is noted, several poems, and a story by Mark Twain.

The September *Wide Awake* opens with a short story by Mrs. Clara Erskine Clement, which Robert Lewis illustrates on a full page. Another of Margaret J. Preston's art poems for children, is "Michael's Mallet." Mrs. Lucia Chase Ball begins a two-part story, with the attractive title of "The Boy that was Too Beautiful." John Brownjohn's Queerclow Chronicles, No 3, is a very laughable account of some boys who made a six hours' vow not to speak without saying "accordingly higglety-pigglety, hic haw hoc."

We notice that the dear little *Nursery* is now issued by the Nursery Publishing-house of Boston. The illustrations in the September number, as well as the stories and poems, are unusually good.

The July *Home Guardian*, (Boston), contains thirty-six pages of good reading, Dr. Hanaford, Eleanor Kirk, and Haze. Wyde and others contributing.

The August number of *Vick's Monthly Magazine* is full of pictures, the frontispiece an Easter Lily on gray background, painted expressly for this periodical.

The students of Harvard College issued seven numbers of a handsome monthly *Register*, which we hope will continue to live. It is not only interesting to Harvardians, but to any person of intelligence and thought.

An interesting little paper is *The Growing World*, published by John R. Coryell, 113 Fulton street, New York. It is a twelve paged affair and is filled with articles and stories about things animate and inanimate in nature, illustrated.

NEW MUSIC.

Kunkle's Musical Review for August contains lessons to "The Wedding Day," words by E. C. Stedman, music by Aloys Bidez, and to "Il Trovatore," fantastic, by Jean Paul.

The August *Musical Herald* contains a sacred quartette for mixed voices, "Jesus, Lover of my Soul," by Adam Geibel, a recitative from Mendelssohn's "St. Paul, five short hymns, and Schumann's tender "Traumerei."

The last number of *Baldwin's Musical Review* prints "Time of Apple Blossoms," by Froboe Campana, "Queen of the Meadow" for the piano, by Charles Kinkle, and a "Prelude," by Freyer.

In the August *Folio* we find the popular song of "Dearest Mae," J. A. Barney's, "Parted from Loved Ones," "The Citizen's Galop," by Carl Volt, "Lass on Shore," march, by A. E. Warren, "The Whistling Mountain Boy," fantastic, by A. W. Holt, and "God ever is Good."

The *Musical Visitor* brings between its covers, "Who will meet me First?" song and chorus by D. C. Addison; "La Chalet," polka mazurka; "I've been roaming," song; "Grand March" from Tannhauser and "First Kiss," Waltz; arranged for young players.

BRAIN AND NERVE FOOD.

VITALIZED PHOSPHATES

Composed of the nerve giving principle of the Ox Brain and Wheat Germ. Physicians have prescribed 193,000 packages, with good results in all forms of impaired vitality, nervous exhaustion, or weakened digestion. It is the best Preventive of consumption, and all diseases of debility. It gives quiet rest and sleep, both to infant and grown persons, by feeding the brain and nerves. For sale by Druggists or by mail, \$1.00.

F. CROSBY, 666 Sixth Avenue, New York.

PAMPHLETS.

Catalogue of Masonic Institute, Palestine, Texas.—Annual catalogue of Whitworth college and Normal school for young ladies, Brookhaven, Miss.—Order of exercises at exhibition, Phillips academy, Andover, Mass.—Annual report of the superintendent of public instruction of the city of Brooklyn for the year ending Dec. 1879.—Catalogue of Phillips academy, 1880.—Circular Nos. 5 and 7 Department of public instruction, Lansing, Mich.—The data of Ethics, by Herbert Spencer. New York: J. Fitzgerald & Co. Price fifteen cents.—Hollins Institute, Botetourt springs, Virginia.—Fifty-fifth annual report of the American Tract Society. New York: 1880.—Wisconsin State Normal school at Whitewater.—No. 2 of circulars of information of the Bureau of Education: Washington.—Robt. Clarke & Co.'s catalogue of books on education. Cincinnati, Robt. Clarke & Co.—Birch's patent self-adjusting watch-keys, circular.

Among the Publishers.

G. L. JONES AND CO.

This St. Louis firm is displaying unusual activity. They have brought together several volumes of standard merit and present an excellent list of text-books. They represent Mathematics, Grammars, Physics, Rhetoric, Elocution and Literature. The volumes on Physics are admirable and can be made very popular. The work on Rhetoric by H. W. Jameson is brief but excellent. All of the volumes published by this house have decided merit, but we single these out simply from having known them before they were combined with the others. We tender the firm our best wishes.

BEFORE a teacher can set about his professional work intelligently, and with assurances of success, he must not only understand its technical details, but he should also have a broad and comprehensive knowledge of the general objects of education, and the means by which these are to be accomplished.

Is it Possible.

That a remedy made of such common, simple plants as Hops, Buchu, Mandrake, Dandelion, &c., make so many and such marvelous and wonderful cures as Hop Bitters do? It must be, for when old and young, rich and poor, Pastor and Doctor, Lawyer and Editor, all testify to having been cured by them, we must believe and doubt no longer. See other column.—Post.

A Triumph.

It is a singular fact that very many Americans suffer from pernia or rupture, caused by straining in lifting, or in making some great exertion. The Elastic Truss is an invention to meet this class of sufferers. It is worn night and day with ease, retains the rupture with certainty at all times, and should not be taken off at all for the few weeks requisite to effect a cure. It is very durable and cheap. It is sent by mail every where by the Elastic Truss Co., No. 683 Broadway, New York City, was supplied Circulars free.

Father: "Charley, I see no improvement in your marks."

Charley: "Yes, papa; it is high time that you had a serious talk with the teacher, or else he'll keep on that way forever."

THE day after graduation from school or college often seems to the departing student like the day after the end of the world. He has hardly looked beyond the delivery of his graduating address and the receipt of his diploma; or, if his eyes have peered beyond, it has been toward a mist-veiled land. And the day of leaving school or college is the end of one world and the beginning of another—a world of new work to be done and new duties to be fulfilled. A place is waiting for every one of this summer's graduates; perhaps not such a one as the young man or woman has chosen or has dreamed of, but a place for faithful labor and helpful effort. That good old motto, "Do the next thing" will form a serviceable new starting point.—Sunday school Times.

Intense Suffering from Kidneys Cured. MONTGOMERY CENTER, Vt., Feb. 25th, 1880.

Gentlemen—I feel it a duty and a pleasure not only to acknowledge my gratitude to you personally, but also to bring my case before the public, and testify after eight years intense suffering, what your Kidney-Wort has done for me. For the past year have been taking different remedies for Kidney Disease, but derived no benefit. Have had trouble with my Kidneys for eight years very bad by spells, and for several months, able to do but very little work, at times passing blood from the bladder, and experienced a prickly sensation all over. I was fearful of paralysis, and was dizzy, afraid to stoop over from fear of falling. At last in January commenced taking your Kidney-Wort and found almost immediate relief. One box made a new man of me. I feel almost as well as ever in my life, and I sincerely believe it will restore to health all who may be similarly afflicted.

MICHAEL COTO.

MRS. WELLS, RICHARDSON & Co.,

Gentlemen—The above named person has been in our employ the past three years, and we know him to be a man of truth and honor; we believe and know his condition and statements to be true. We know of others in this vicinity equally as thankful for the benefits derived from the use of this medicine. Respectfully yours, SHERMAN BRADISH & CO.

DIPHTHERIA FROM BAD WATER.—Dr. Sanford has traced an outbreak of diphtheria directly to impure water at a public school, which is well built, and ventilated, and clean. The closets empty into one common cesspool. The water supplied to the children from a well in the play-ground came under suspicion, and on examination it was found that there was a leak from the cesspool into the well. Thus through several months the children had been drinking water charged with more or less of its contents, and an outbreak of diphtheria then prevailing was traced directly to this source. This hint may be useful in other places where this disease is prevalent.

How to get Sick.

Expose yourself day and night, eat too much without exercise; work too hard without rest; doctor all the time; take all the vile nostrums advertised; and then you will want to know.

How to Get Well.

Which is answered in three words—Take Hop Bitters! See other column.—Express.



Like its Celebrated Namesake, the Seltzer Spring in Germany.

Tarrant's Seltzer Aperient,

Affords a sparkling, cooling, and refreshing draught, and is at the same time a reliable means of overcoming dyspepsia, a bilious or irregular habit of the body, affections of the kidneys, rheumatism, gout, languor and loss of appetite.

SOLD BY ALL DRUGGISTS.

KIDNEY-WORT

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